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The purposes of this study were to analyze parent involvement as it related to (1) the development of language abilities of culturally disadvantaged preschool children and (2) the intelligence test scores of these children and to analyze parent attitudes resulting from involvement. Nine hypotheses were tested. Forty-one 4-year-old Head Starters in Terre Haute, Indiana, participated. In Group I, no parental involvement was attempted. In Group II, parents participated in general meetings. Home visiting was the technique used with Group III. Analysis of data suggested these conclusions: (1) contrary to opinion, these parents are concerned about their children and are willing to cooperate with school personnel within the realm of their capabilities: (2) home experiences influence a child's language abilities; (3) the child has more capacity to perform when his visual processes are utilized, as opposed to his audiotype processes; (4) he is very inadequate in his ability to comprehend the spoken word and to express ideas orally; (5) disadvantaged parents tend to show little trust in their children. Implications of the conclusions were discussed, and suggestions for future research were proposed. (DO)

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CHANGING PARENT ATTITUDES AND IMPROVING LANGUAGE AND INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES OF CULTURALLY DISADVANTAGED FOUR-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN THROUGH PARENT INVOLVEMENT

BY

JANET LEE GORRELL MCCARTHY

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Doctor of Education degree
in the School of Education
Indiana University
June, 1968

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J.L.G.M.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In our school systems, one can identify a large group of children who are characterized by lack of motivation and no apparent goals. For the most part, these children are performing in a substandard manner in their school work. Many non-school factors are affecting their learning power. Low family income is not the principal factor militating against the success of the disadvantaged children in school. The manner of life into which they were born, the way in which they have been treated by adults, the kind of speech heard in the home, and the values, aspirations and personal habits of their elders are the main influences affecting the child's educability. Poverty, nevertheless, reinforces the deleterious effects of other conditions of life on the ability to learn. Poor nutrition, housing and sanitation, neglect of illness and physical handicaps, insufficient supervision of children of working mothers, and the perpetual fear of destitution hardly prepare the child of poverty for the atmosphere in the classroom.

Even children in families above the lowest income levels may be culturally disadvantaged; often their parents are poorly educated and have no appreciation of the values of education. Such children, as well as those from the poorest families, may grow up in an atmosphere of hostility or apathy toward the educated class. The homes may be without books, magazines or newspapers; the children may never have held a pencil or crayon; they may never have been read to, may never have seen anyone else read or they may not have been taken on a trip outside their own neighborhood. These children have done, heard, and seen very little that would prepare them for the expectations of the school. Deutsch[1] points out that many of these children have had less experience in talking and listening, especially in talking with adults interested in having the world make sense to children, and less experience in manipulating objects, in putting things together, and in taking things apart. Therefore, most of these children lack the ability to form general concepts about the world in which they live and their role in this world.

Early childhood education has a special province in the education of these culturally disadvantaged children. Changes are being made at all levels of education to accomodate the disadvantaged; however, research of the past decade in child growth and development indicates that early childhood experiences are crucial for all later development. These very formative years are most decisive in the child's later achievement in school. Bloom's[2] recent study of human development presents the thesis that environmental variations can have their greatest effect during this period of a child's life--the developmental characteristics including height, intelligence and intellectuality reach half of the human organism's total development before school age.

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[1] Deutsch, Martin, "The Disadvantaged Child and the Learning Process" in Education in Depressed Areas, pp. 173-174.

[2] Bloom, B. S., Stability and Change in Human Characteristics, pp. 68.

Special programs have been introduced in the past six or eight years in a variety of ways. As of 1965, preschool programs are receiving federal financial support in an attempt to offer compensatory education as an antidote for cultural deprivation. These federally supported programs are community action programs that designate parent involvement as an integral portion of their plan. Through analysis of various methods of working with parents, progress can be made toward developing effective parent involvement programs--programs that will support and enhance the classroom learning of culturally disadvantaged preschool children.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is three-fold.

The first part of the study will be an analysis of two types of parent involvement for culturally disadvantaged parents as they relate to the development of language abilities of disadvantaged preschool children.

The second part of the study will be an analysis of two types of parent involvement for culturally disadvantaged parents as they relate to the intelligence test scores of preschool children.

The third part of the study will be an analysis of parent attitudes as a result of the two types of parent involvement. More specifically, the study is concerned with determining the most effective methods of working with parents to bring about attitudinal changes which project to the child and help him function more effectively. The two types of parent involvement programs to be initiated and studied are: individualized home-visitation and general group meetings.

Hypotheses

To compare the outcomes of the two parent involvement programs as they affect the culturally disadvantaged preschool child, the following hypotheses will be tested.

1. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in the language abilities of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in an individualized home-visit program and those children whose parents do not participate in any type of parent involvement.

2. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in the language abilities of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in an individualized home-visit program and those children whose parents participate in a general group meeting parent involvement program.

3. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in the language abilities of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in an individualized home-visit involvement program and those children whose parents do not participate in any type of parent involvement.

5. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in intelligence test scores of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in an individualized home-visit involvement program and those children whose parents participate in a general group meeting involvement program.

6. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in intelligence test scores of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in a general group meeting involvement program and those children whose parents do not participate in any type of involvement program.

7. There is no significant change in parent attitudes between parents who participated in the individualized home-visit program and those who participated in the general group meeting program.

8. There is no significant change in parent attitudes between parents who participated in the individualized home-visit program and those who participated in no parent program.

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9. There is no significant change in parent attitudes between parents who participated in the general group meeting program and those who participated in no parent program.

Definition of Terms

As used in this study, the terms defined below hold the specified meaning.

1. Culturally disadvantaged--a relational concept that assumes there is a normative or dominant middle-class culture and some children and their parents are deprived of experience with this culture--not of all culture. In the context of this study, it means disadvantaged in terms of not having the values and experiences needed to get along in the schools as they are currently constituted.

2. Head Start--a school program designed for culturally disadvantaged young children which will contribute to the child's total development and compensate for many of his deficits that are a result of his environmental circumstances.

3. Parent Involvement--a program designed to help parents recognize the qualities they possess; understand and appreciate how children grow and learn; develop confidence and enjoyment of their role as parents and develop a feeling of family togetherness.

Delimitations of Study

This investigation was designed within the limits stated below:

1. The sample was comprised of students from a predetermined socio-economic and cultural background.

2. The gains made by the children in areas other than language development and intelligence quotient were not considered.

3. Changes in parent attitudes other than those related to their role as parents or understanding of their child were not considered.

Limitations of Study

This investigation is limited to some degree by each of the following:

1. The research was limited to a study of children and their parents in three classes enrolled from September to June of a given school year.

2. The findings of the study were limited by the reliability and validity of the testing instruments.

3. The provision of identical testing situations was impossible even though precautions were taken to do so.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

Although this study is directed toward improving the present methods of working with disadvantaged children and their parents, it is essential to focus on all related areas of concern. The process of learning is a part of a complicated network and educators need to utilize the knowledge contributed by all disciplines in developing a program that meets the needs of this segment of the population. The review of related research will summarize the major issues concerning home environment and social class that sociologists and anthropologists have cited as detrimental to learning. Psychologists offer relevant information about intellectual development; cognition and learning; and personality and motivation that lends insight to learning abilities. In addition, specialists in the field of language arts offer comprehensive information about language development that provides the theoretical framework for designing a compensatory language program. The major issues proposed by these specialists will be discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

Home Environment and Social Class

Understanding the factors which influence the language development of a child may be approached by analyzing the research related to the home environment and social class. It is through the family orientation that the child receives his initial orientation to the world. Specifically, it is the family orientation that determines which orientations a child will develop, either by providing these orientations directly or by not doing so. Within this family the child begins to understand his relationship to others and to become aware of the world around him. He develops the values, attitudes and aspirations necessary to function and be a contributing member in a society. Through language he is able to communicate, express and interpret ideas and develop his problem solving ability--the ability that enables him to function effectively.

Within current society one finds great variation in family forces that influence the growth and development of the child. Bernard[1] estimated that 15 to 25 per cent of the children of this country come from homes with little formal education, low family incomes and unstable family structure. Approximately half of these families are fatherless and when the father is present he spends little time at home. In addition these homes are plagued with numerous family members and little living space. Privacy is practically unknown. With little skill at a trade, employment of parents is haphazard. The security offered the middle class child by the middle class parent is missing in the world of the disadvantaged child. The supportiveness and encouragement to achieve both academically and socially is unknown to him.

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[1] Bernard, H. W., Human Development in Western Culture, p. 78.

Recognizing the pressures influencing the socialization of the child will lead to greater understanding of the cultural milieu from which the child emerges and aid in providing him with the skills and knowledge for fulfillment of his potential. Goldberg[2] emphasizes the need for providing the disadvantaged child with the skills and knowledge which will enable him to select his future direction rather than be hemmed in by his limited scope of experiences. This educationally neglected child is not responsible for his plight. His problem lies in the hands of a society that holds to the belief that anyone can succeed if one tries. Since this handicap is not one that is evidenced by a physical disorder, society sees no excuse for failing to move upward. In addition to the thwarting conditions within the family and society, the child is faced with a school oriented toward educating the middle class child and failing to interpret the needs of the disadvantaged child.[3]

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[2] Goldberg, M. L., "Factors Affecting Educational Attainment in Depressed Areas," in Education in Depressed Areas, p. 89.

[3] Pease, Damaris, "Family Forces Influence Child Behavior," in The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations, pp. 384-385.

Comparisons of the quantitative measures of language function by Pringle and Tanner[4] consistently favor children raised in their own homes with harmonious parent-child relations over children raised in institutions. The interpretation suggested by the investigators indicates that the inadequate and limited exposure to language with little opportunity for individual communication resulted in restricted language development.

Retarded speech development has been cited by Templin[5] as another deficit of the disadvantaged child. The data in the Templin study show a difference in mastery of speech sounds appearing after the age of one-and-a-half years with the disadvantaged child reaching a near mature form of articulation at least one year later than a child from a middle class environment. In addition to a slower rate of speech development, the disadvantaged child is more apt to suffer from retarded and sub-standard speech. Studies by

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[4] Pringle, M. L., and Tanner, Margaret, "The Effects of Early Deprivation on Speech Development: A Comparative Study of Four Year Olds in a Nursery School and in Residential Nurseries," Language and Speech 1:269-287, October-December, 1958.

[5] Templin, M. C., "Norms on Screening Test of Articulation for Ages Three through Eight," Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders 18:323-331, December, 1953.

Becky[6] and Irwin[7] found that retarded speech development was more prevalent among disadvantaged children.

In the Institute for Developmental Studies, Martin Deutsch[8] focused on the delineation of the major dimensions through which environment is likely to operate in a manner suppressing development and has attempted to specify cognitive and language areas that have been most greatly affected by depressed environmental circumstances. In addition, Deutsch has attempted to identify patterns in the context of background variables at two developmental stages and to relate these background variables to specific cognitive and linguistic patterns. Deutsch indicates evidence to support the assumption that it is the active verbal engagement of people who surround the child which is the operative influence in the child's language development.

A similar theme is expounded by Bernstein[9] of England as he notes that patterns of difficulty in learning which characterize the disadvantaged child are directly related to

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[6] Becky, R. E., "A Study of Certain Factors Related to Retardation of Speech," Journal of Speech Disorders 7:223-249, September, 1942.

[7] Irwin, O. C., "Infant Speech: The Effect of Family Occupational Status and of Age on Use of Sound Types," Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders 13:224-226, September, 1948.

[8] Deutsch, Martin, "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," in Education of the Disadvantaged, pp. 214-215.

[9] Bernstein, Basil, "Social Structure, Language and Learning," in Education of the Disadvantaged, pp. 226-232.

the language structures and usages generally common in the lowerclass way of life. He sees the language of this segment of the population as being restricted and limited in effectiveness to communication with only those who share a common identification. Bernstein calls this the "public" language and defines the characteristics as short sentences often unfinished with a poor syntactical form stressing the active voice. Conjunctions are simple and used repetitively. Subordinate clauses are seldom used to break down the initial categories of the predominant idea. Adjectives and adverbs are very limited. Often the users of "public" language are not capable of holding a formal subject through a speech sequence and the informational content is destroyed. Therefore, the disadvantaged child comes from an environment where verbalization is limited and organized by means of a narrow range of formal expressions. He learns to form a language which symbolizes group needs rather than focusing on the individual.

Other studies focusing on the relationship between language usage and social class support the findings of Bernstein. Anastasi,[10] Templin[11] and

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[10] Anastasi, Anne, and D'Angelo, R. Y., "A Comparison of Negro and White Preschool Children in Language Development and Goodenough Draw-A-Man IQ," Journal of Genetic Psychology, vol. 81, pp. 147-165.

[11] Templin, M. C., Certain Language Skills in Children Their Development and Interrelationships, pp. 165-169.

Thomas[12] indicated the number of words per remark was few for disadvantaged children when compared to their middle class counterparts. The restricted form tended to confine thinking and communication to relatively low levels.

Mitchell[13] analyzed a battery of tests given to children of high and low social status and found that the verbal meaning and fluency scores for the low-status children could be used to predict their scores on a range of different factors. This lead to the conclusion that the social form of a relationship acts selectively on the mode and content of the communication.

In support of the theory that home environment and social class influence the language development of a young child, Milner[14] found a positive relationship between reading readiness and certain patterns of parent-child interaction. The disadvantaged child seemed to lack a warm positive family atmosphere which provided verbal adult-child interaction that is a prerequisite to motivation. In addition the child did not experience association with adults who possess adequate speech patterns which serve as a model for him.

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[12] Thomas, D. R., Oral Language, Sentence Structure and Vocabulary of Kindergarten Children Living in Low Socio-Economic Urban Areas, p. 1014.

[13] Mitchell, J. V., Jr., "A Comparison of the Factorial Structure of Cognitive Functions for a High and Low Status Group," Journal of Educational Psychology 47:397-414, November, 1956.

[14] Milner, Esther, "A Study of the Relationship Between Reading Readiness in Grade Zone School Children and Patterns of Parent-Child Interaction" Child Development 22:95-112, June, 1951.

Another issue regarding language development is noted by Hunt.[15] He sees the young child as learning that objects have names late in the second year and throughout the third year of life. The disadvantaged child lives in crowded poverty stricken conditions that have few objects to provide rich input. His questions are seldom answered and often bring about punishment that obviously impedes further questioning. Hunt sees these environmental conditions as preventing the child from developing representative imagery which could furnish the referents for spoken or written language that are derived through scrutinizing and manipulating objects.

Unfortunately the early language deficiencies have a long lasting effect. Research findings of Deutsch[16] and Hilliard[17] indicate an increase in language differences associated with social class as the age of the child increases. This suggests an extensive program of early intervention is essential to counteract cultural deprivation.

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[15] Hunt, J. Mc., "How Children Develop Intellectually," Children 11:83-91, May-June, 1964.

[16] Deutsch, Martin, "The Disadvantaged Child and the Learning Process," in Education in Depressed Areas, pp. 163-179.

[17] Hilliard, G. H., and Troxwell, Eleanor, "Informational Background as a Factor in Reading Readiness and Reading Progress," Elementary School Journal, vol. 38, pp. 255-263.

Language Development

Language is a vital factor in development of concepts and in interpretation and understanding of one's environment. However, it is important to emphasize that our leading authorities in the area of language arts, such as Strickland,[18] state that the child's environment, his experiences and his experiential reactions govern his language development. This shows the encumbering cycle the disadvantaged child encounters in a situation that offers little opportunity for escape.

Numerous studies report that children from disadvantaged backgrounds, in comparison with middle class children, are less apt to utilize standard English in expressing their feelings and experiences or in identifying objects in their environment. It is essential to note that this is not denying the use of expressive skills unique to a particular sub-culture within our society.

Language deficits and differences seem to result from diverse circumstances, some of which create a disadvantaged status. Goldfarb,[19] for instance, studied the development of children who had impersonal infant care during institutionalization in their first three years of life. When compared with a similar group reared in foster homes during the first three years, these children were inferior on all tests of intelligence. As late as adolescence, the institution reared children had much more difficulty with tests involving stories, rhymes and recall than did the children reared in foster homes. Pringle and Tanner[20] compared two groups of preschool children from low socio-economic backgrounds, matched by age, sex and IQ, and found that the children who lived at home and attended a day nursery surpassed on all quantitative measures of language the children who lived in an institution and attended a residential nursery. In both the Goldfarb and Pringle studies, it was indicated that lack of early stimulation resulted in a restricted language development. In follow-up investigations the impairment was not overcome despite intervention.

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[18] Strickland, R. G., The Language Arts in the Elementary School, p. 7.

[19] Goldfarb, W., "Effects of Psychological Deprivation in Infancy and Subsequent Stimulation," American Journal of Psychiatry 102:18-33, 1945.

Other investigations have been concerned with the relationship between socio-economic status and language development. Irwin[21] and Beckey[22] found more children with retarded speech development among lower socio-economic groups than in the middle and upper classes. Day[23] notes similar findings in the study of twins from different socio-economic groups. Templin[24] found that speech articulation test scores were much lower for children from the lower socio-economic group than they were for children from other socio-economic groups. Her data showed a delay of approximately one year in reaching mature forms of articulation. Also, a difference in articulation mastery appears at about the age of one and a half years.

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[20] Pringle and Tanner, op. cit., pp. 269-287.

[21] Irwin, op. cit., pp. 224-226.

[22] Beckey, op. cit., pp. 223-249.

[23] Day, E. J., "Language Development in Twins," in Readings in Child Psychology, pp. 72-86.

Other researchers show that it is not only articulation but general language usage that may be influenced by economic status. Thomas[25] analyzed vocabulary and sentence development of the spoken language of white and Negro kindergarten children from low socio-economic conditions. From several comparisons of utterances obtained in a structured oral interview, he found that girls used longer sentences than boys, whites used longer sentences than Negroes and some of his subjects used significantly fewer words per remark than did the middle socio-economic group reported by Templin.[26] Thomas reported a mean of 5.6 words per remark for his subjects and Templin found 6.9 to be the mean number of words for her group.

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[24] Templin, M. C., "Norms on Screening Test of Articulation for Ages Three through Eight," Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders 18:323-331, December, 1953.

[25] Thomas, op. cit., p. 1014.

[26] Templin, M. C., Certain Language Skills in Children: Their Development and Interrelationships, pp. 88-90.

In addition to Thomas, other researchers have noted the adverse influence membership in a minority group has on language facility. One of the first writers to call attention to this view was Klineberg.[27] Further studies by Anastasi and D'Angelo,[28] Anastasi and de Jesus,[29] Pasamanick[30] and Knobloch and Pasamanick[31] compared speech of Negro and white children and found a higher frequency of mature sentence structure and better concept formation among the white children.

Bernstein[32] describes the language of the low socioeconomic group in London as restricted in form, serving to communicate signals and directions with a tendency to confine thinking to a relatively low level of repetitiveness. The same investigator describes the language of other socio-economic groups as elaborated in form and serving to communicate ideas, relationships, feelings and attitudes. These findings suggest that important qualitative differences exist in the form and use of language and these differences may have important implications for learning.

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[27] Klineberg, O. A., Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration, pp. 122-131.

[28] Anastasi, Anne, and D'Angelo, R. Y., "A Comparison of Negro and White Preschool Children in Language Development and Goodenough Draw-a-Man IQ," Journal of Genetic Psychology 81:163, 1952.

[29] Anastasi, Anne, and de Jesus, C., "Language Development and Non-verbal IQ of Puerto Rican Preschool Children in New York City," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 48:365-366, 1953.

[30] Pasamanick, B., "A Comparative Study of the Behavioral Development of Negro Infants," Journal of Genetic Psychology 69:43, 1946.

[31] Knobloch, Hilda, and Pasamanick, B., "A Developmental Questionnaire for Infants Forty Weeks of Age: An Evaluation," Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development 22:33-34, 1955.

[32] Bernstein, Basil, "Language and Social Class," British Journal of Sociology, vol. 11, pp. 271-276.

Deutsch[33] has indicated that differences in language associated with social class tend to increase with the age of the child. As lower class children grow older, they tend to fall further behind other socio-economic classes. He concludes that learning problems of disadvantaged children are somehow related to differences in language development. Ausubel[34] agrees that children with delayed language development have difficulty in moving from concrete to abstract thinking. Almy[35] notes that the findings of her recent study suggest that middle class children acquire sufficient vocabulary to describe their observations reasonably well, but this is no guarantee that they understand the properties of the objects. She found that the disadvantaged children had less difficulty in sorting objects and classifying them than they did in making verbal identification. In addition, Almy calls attention to the differences among individuals with similar backgrounds in the way they organize their environment; therefore, socio-economic generalizations should be mentioned cautiously in an effort to avoid neglecting the individual.

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[33] Deutsch, Martin, "The Disadvantaged Child and the Learning Process," in Education in Depressed Areas, pp. 163-179.

[34] Ausubel, D. P., "How Reversible are the Cognitive and Motivational Effects of Cultural Deprivation? Implications for Teaching the Culturally Deprived Child," in Education of the Disadvantaged, pp. 306-316.

[35] Almy, Millie, Young Children's Thinking: Studies of Some Aspects of Piaget's Theory, pp. 126-128.

Intellectual Development

During the last decade, psychologists have critically reviewed earlier theories about heredity, environment and intelligence. The nature versus nurture concept is being replaced and emphasis is directed toward nature and nurture of intellectual development. This recent view of the nature-nurture controversy and an accumulation of developmental evidence has resulted in a revised concept of the nature of intelligence. J. McVicker Hunt interprets this view in Intelligence and Experience.[36] He defines intelligence as the central neural processes which develop in the brain and give direction to incoming information via the senses and cause motor response. Hunt maintains that the initial establishment and subsequent capacity of these processes are probably rooted in the child's earliest encounters with the world surrounding him. Intelligence is a dynamic process with wide hereditary limits subject to innumerable experiential factors and not an inherited capacity, genetically fixed and destined to unfold in a biologically predetermined manner. This is not denying an hereditary influence, but viewing it as an important component that expands intelligence.

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[36] Hunt, J. Mc., Intelligence and Experience, p. 275.

In his extensive studies, the eminent Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget,[37] provides abundant evidence that intelligence is the antithesis of a predetermined capacity. He points out the essential role that environment plays as it exerts its action on the subject and creates a response. The responses elicited from the subject vary in each of the stages developed by Piaget and are directly related to the experiences of the subject. Hunt[38] pointed out that in view of Piaget's developmental theory, a child develops more interest, becomes more adaptable and accommodates new behavior as he is exposed to new things.

Bloom[39] has impressively shown the influence of the child's environment in the early years on cognitive development. Through analysis of a series of longitudinal studies of individual development, he concludes that in terms of intelligence measured at age 17, at least 20 per cent is developed by age 1, 50 per cent by age 4, 80 per cent by approximately age 8, and 92 per cent by age 13. This indicates a marked effect of environmental influence on the IQ before age 8 with the greatest impact prior to age 5. Bruner[40] likewise contends that a rich environment enables the child to develop strategies for evaluating information and constructing models of the environment. He believes in early intervention and sees this as being particularly important for the disadvantaged child who needs the basic tools for developing the basic concepts.

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[37] Piaget, Jean, The Origins of Intelligence in Children, pp. 357-359.

[38] Hunt, op. cit., pp. 258-259.

[39] Bloom, B. S., Stability and Change in Human Characteristics, p. 68.

Fowler[41] surveyed studies of gifted children which furnished some important clues on the function of early cognitive stimulation. He found the association between cognitive precocity and the application of intensive stimulation from infancy has always been extremely high. This suggests a revision of our concept of the disadvantaged child as a slow learner and raises the question of how much talent is being lost. Fowler also supports the proponents of early intervention through a conscious selection and planning of a stimulating environment.

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[40] Bruner, J. S., "The Cognitive Consequences of Early Sensory Deprivation," in Sensory Deprivation, p. 202.

[41] Fowler, William, "Cognitive Learning in Infancy and Early Childhood," Psychological Bulletin 59:116-152, 1962.

Research by Deutsch,[42] who studied Negro and white children in large slum areas in New York, indicates concept formation and IQ scores are related to factors such as stimulus deprivation or enrichment concomitant to the child's status. Supporting the views of Deutsch are John,[43] Forgays[44] and Fowler.[45]

Ausubel[46] draws heavily from research to weave his assessment of the consequences of cultural deprivation on verbal and abstract intelligence and proposes a "critical periods" hypothesis. His idea is that there are optimal periods of readiness for all kinds of cognitive development. The findings of Skeels and Fillmore,[47] Skeels and others,[48]

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[42] Deutsch, Martin, "Facilitating Development in the Preschool Child: Social and Psychological Perspectives," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly 10:249-263, July, 1964.

[43] John, V. P., "The Intellectual Development of Slum Children: Some Preliminary Findings," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 33:813-822, October, 1963.

[44] Forgays, D. G., Subject Characteristics and the Selective Influence of Enriched Experience in Early Life, symposium paper presented at American Psychological Association, Philadelphia, August, 1963 (meeting).

[45] Fowler, William, "Teaching a Two-Year-Old to Read: An Experiment in Early Childhood Learning," Genetic Psychology Monographs 66:282, 1962.

[46] Ausubel, op. cit., pp. 306-326.

[47] Skeels, H. M., and Fillmore, E. A., "Mental Developmebt of Children from Underprivileged Homes," Journal of Genetic Psychology 50:438, November, 1937.

[48] Skeels, H. M., and others, "A Study of Environmental Stimulation: An Orphanage Preschool Project," in University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, vol. 15, no. 4, 1938, pp. 125-258.

Skodak[49] and Bayley[50] show that the longer the child remains in a sub-standard environment such as an orphanage or with mentally retarded mothers the lower his IQ becomes in comparison with the IQ's of children removed from those conditions and placed in more favorable environments. Ausubel[51] concludes that the crucial formative years should offer a stimulating learning environment and in turn this would reverse the degree of retardation.

Earlier studies showed a concern about the effects of environment on intellectual development but focused primarily on nursery school attendance as a means of accelerating mental growth. Wooley[52] showed that attendance in the Merrill-Palmer Nursery School increased the IQ scores of children. A similar study by Wellman[53] at the State University of Iowa found that environment was a basic factor influencing intellectual development through comparing children attending a nursery school with those children not attending a nursery school.

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[49] Skodak, Marie, "Children in Foster Homes: A Study of Mental Development," in _University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare_, vol. 16, no. 1, 1939, pp. 122-128.

[50] Bayley, Nancy, and Jones, H. E., "Environmental Correlates of Mental and Motor Development: A Cumulative Study from Infancy to Six Years," _Child Development_ 4:335-341, April, 1937.

[51] Ausubel, _op. cit._, p. 325.

[52] Wooley, H. T., "The Validity of Standards of Mental Measurement in Young Children," _School and Society_ 21:481-482, April, 1925.

[53] Wellman, B. L., "The Effects of Preschool Attendance upon Intellectual Development," in _Child Behavior and Development_, pp. 229-243.

Other researchers have shown concern for the trend toward lower IQ's of children raised in large families. Anastasi[54] found such a relationship. One rife explanation of this phenomenon is simply that parents who have large families are natively less intelligent. However, Hunt[55] points out that it is partially due to parents of large families having less time to spend with each child in answering questions and developing a curiosity about his world.

Social relationships within the family and the influence of these relationships on intellectual development have produced studies that lend insight into the disadvantaged child's abilities. Hess[56] proposes a theory of distortion rather than a theory of deficit as a means of understanding the child's cognitive equipment. His studies of mother and child communication patterns show that the disadvantaged child learns cognitive patterns of responsive behavior and ways of interpreting stimuli from the external world which are not adaptive for academic learning. Baldwin, Kalhorn and Breese[57] also found that IQ's of children from four to seven years of age increased with time if parental discipline consists of responsive and realistic explanations, but tends to fall when parental discipline consists of unresponsiveness or demands for obedience with painful stimulation as the alternative. Deutsch and Brown[58] reported that children from fatherless homes have significantly lower IQ scores by the time they get to the fifth grade than do children who come from intact homes. They hypothesize that this was a consequence of the decrease in organized family activity rather than the mere absence of the father.

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[54] Anastasi, Anne, "Intelligence and Family Size," Psychological Bulletin 53:202-209, May, 1956.

[55] Hunt, J. Mc., "How Children Develop Intellectually," in The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations, p. 90.

[56] Hess, R. D., "Educability and Rehabilitation: The Future of the Welfare Class," in The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations, p. 409.

Analysis of the research related to intellectual development calls attention to numerous factors in operation and provides preschool educators with valuable clues in prescribing a program of broad scope that offers the disadvantaged child a unique opportunity for fulfilling his capabilities.

Cognition and Learning

With significant developments regarding the nature of intelligence occuring in recent years, new questions are arising in relation to cognition and learning. During infancy the child experiences people and objects and develops a means of interaction. His sensory and motor resources help him receive and process data from his environment. As relationships between objects, people and the child take on meaning for the child, he is developing cognitively. Deutsch[59] noted that it must be recognized that the child from a disadvantaged environment has few objects to look at, hold and play with. The people in his environment seldom have time or space to interact with him; therefore, this child comes to school with little understanding of the world around him. Likewise, he is rather inadequate in his ability to interpret what he experiences in his environment because he is inexperienced in seeing relationships. Research by Hess[60] showed that lower class mothers are significantly more likely than middle class mothers to provide a cognitive environment in which behavior is governed by status rules rather than focusing on the characteristics of each situation. Directing behavior by the lower class mother is impulsive rather than through relating events and giving verbal clues--a practice commonly utilized by the middle class mother. Again this reflects the possibility that the child from the disadvantaged home will have difficulty functioning in a school environment that emphasizes discovery and reasoning when he is unaccustomed to such techniques.

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[57] Baldwin, A. L., Kalhorn, J., and Breese, F. H., "Patterns of Parent Behavior," Psychological Monographs, vol. 58, 1945, p. 32.

[58] Deutsch, Martin, and Brown, B., "Social Influences in Negro-White Intelligence Differences," Journal of Social Issues 20:24-35, April, 1964.

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[59] Deutsch, Martin, "Nursery Education: The Influence of Social Programing on Early Development," in The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations, p. 147.

[60] Hess, R. D., Shipman, Virginia, and Jackson, David, "Early Experience and the Socialization of Cognitive Modes in Children," Child Development, 36:869-886, December, 1965.

Since the initial contacts that a child has with people and objects are so crucial in the development of reasoning ability, early intervention is proposed by Fowler[61] and Bruner.[62] Fowler points out that cognitive stimulation, when organized appropriately to the capabilities of the child, can be effective in giving the disadvantaged child the opportunity for developing insight. Bruner accepts Dewey's[63] theory of the need for concrete experiences, but questions the necessity for the child to come to school with his own needs or aims. Bruner[64] feels that presenting experiences to the child will create aims for him. This is especially important to the disadvantaged child who knows so little about the world and has developed few goals for himself.

Deutsch[65] calls attention to another dimension of early intervention. He has studied the critical and optimal periods for certain aspects of development in relation to the interaction between the organism and environment. Therefore it is his contention that a program intended to compensate for environmental deprivation would be most effective if supplied at a particular stage in a child's life. This point of view is supported by Scott's summary of research relevant to the critical stages of development.[66] He concludes that the period of greatest plasticity is during the time of initial socialization. Also at this early age there is considerably less to be compensated for than when the child reaches the age for first grade.

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[61] Fowler, William, "Cognitive Learning in Infancy and Early Childhood," Psychological Bulletin 59:116-121, March, 1962.

[62] Bruner, J. S., The Process of Education, p. 12.

[63] Dewey, John, Democracy and Education, p. 144.

[64] Bruner, J. W., The Process of Education, p. 12.

[65] Deutsch, Martin, "Facilitating Development in the Pre-School Child: Social and Psychological Perspectives," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly 10:258, July, 1964.

In summary of the Second Conference sponsored by the Committee on Intellective Processes Research of the Social Science Research Council, Wright and Kagan[67] indicated a need for more research to determine the manner by which a child acquires conceptual structures and what processes are necessary for the child to revise a conceptual structure. Once these questions are answered a theory of cognitive development can be written. In another study, Kagan, Moss and Sigel[68] present another issue regarding cognitive development in that children of like backgrounds appear to differ in their tendency to analyze and differentiate experiences whether presented visually, verbally or tactually. This places emphasis on identifying uniquenesses of the individual as the key to fostering cognitive development rather than focusing on content and structure of experiences as advocated by Deutsch[69] and Bruner.[70] Almy's[71] examination and experimentation with Piaget's theories of cognitive structure revealed that children from lower class backgrounds were much slower in their progress from one level of understanding to the next level of understanding. These findings highlight the role of experiential factors in the development of cognitive processes in all young children.

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[66] Scott, J. P., "Critical Periods in Behavioral Development," Science 138:949-955, November, 1962.

[67] Wright, John, and Kagan, Jerome, "Basic Cognitive Processes in Children," Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, vol. 28, no. 2, 1963, pp. 191-192.

[68] Kagan, Jerome, Moss, Howard, and Sigel, Irving, "Psychological Significance of Styles of Conceptualization," Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, vol. 28, no. 2, 1963.

Personality and Motivation

The child's self-concept is conceived and nurtured in an interpersonal setting. The personality is woven as the child develops autonomy and initiative. Feelings about the self are established early in life and are modified as the child has new experiences. Ausubel[72] and Jourard and Remy[73] report research results supporting the theoretical contention that the people in the child's environment affect his feeling about himself. They point out that the parents are the prime influence and later the teachers when the child enters school. The Hess, Shipman and Jackson research[74] is meaningful in developing insight regarding the disadvantaged. They note that lower class parents do not communicate extensively with their children. Often the lower class child finds his parents unresponsive and likely to explode in anger at his efforts to interact. Maas[75] cites authoritarianism and obedience demands as also being characteristic of the lower class and these tendencies inhibit the young child. In addition, Bronfenbrenner[76] finds evidence that lower class mothers are more severe in sex and modesty training than middle class mothers. They are less tolerant of aggression toward the parent, are more likely to use physical punishment and ego-damaging ridicule to control the child and less likely to use reason and praise as a positive control. Pavenstedt[77] found that lower class families showed concern that the child conform to the teachers' expectations when he enters school rather than understand how the school functions. In the process of collecting data for her study, Pavenstedt noted several occasions when an injured child dashed into the home screaming and went directly to his bed and continued to scream. The mother seldom inquired about the injuries or offered comfort and frequently the mother ridiculed the child.

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[69] Deutsch, Martin, "Facilitating Development in the Pre-School Child: Social and Psychological Perspectives," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly 10:249, July, 1964.

[70] Bruner, J. S., The Process of Education, p. 12-13.

[71] Almy, op. cit., p. 123.

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[72] Ausubel, D. P., and others, "Perceived Parent Attitudes as Determinants of Children's Ego Structure," Child Development 25:173-183, September, 1954.

[73] Jourard, S. M., and Remy, R. M., "Perceived Parental Attitudes, the Self, and Security," Journal of Consulting Psychology 19:364-366, October, 1954.

[74] Hess, R. D., Shipman, Virginia, and Jackson, David, "Early Experience and the Socialization of Cognitive Modes in Children," Child Development 36:869-886, December, 1965.

[75] Maas, H. S., "Some Social Class Differences in the Family Systems and Group Relations of Pre- and Early Adolescents," Child Development 22:145-152, June, 1951.

[76] Bronfenbrenner, Urie, "Socialization and Social Class Through Time and Space," in Readings in Social Psychology, p. 413.

Davis[78] and Lipset[79] add that the lower class child is permitted to fight when he is angry; therefore, physical aggression is regarded as normal. Also, this child has learned from an early age to seek immediate gratification rather than engage in long term activities. Gray and Klaus[80] support the view that the lower class child lacks the personal and social maturity to delay gratification and include other personality factors such as a deficiency in motivation for learning and inability to identify with achieving role models as contributing forces also. LeShan[81] includes a related dimension in that he found in the lower class a quick sequence of tension and relief rather than long sequences typical in the middle and upper classes.

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[77] Pavenstedt, Eleanor, "A Comparison of the Child-Rearing Environment of Upper, Lower and Very Low Lower Class Families," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 35:89-98, January, 1965.

[78] Davis, Allison, "Child Training and Social Class," in Child Behavior and Development, pp. 607-620.

[79] Lipset, S. M., "Working Class Authoritarianism," in Political Man, p. 114.

[80] Gray, S. W., and Klaus, R., "An Experimental Pre-School Program for Culturally Deprived Children," Child Development 36:887-898, December, 1965.

The Ausubels[82] call our attention to the ecological features of personality development in early childhood. Most of the factors mentioned above are characteristic of all lower class people and are not specifically related to Negroes as many white Americans want to believe. In accord with this point of view, Burchinal, Gardner and Hawkes[83] found greater indications of personality maladjustment among lower class children, as measured by their fathers' occupational and educational levels, especially in the case of children's feelings of inferiority. However, being a Negro has some implications for personality development.

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[81] LeShan, L. L., "Time Orientation and Social Class," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 47:589-592, July, 1952.

[82] Ausubel, David, and Ausubel, Pearl, "Ego Development Among Segregated Negro Children," in School Children in the Urban Slum, p. 233.

[83] Burchinal, Lee, Gardner, Bruce, and Hawkes, G. R., "Children's Personality Adjustment and the Socio-Economic Status of Their Families," Journal of Genetic Psychology 92:158, June, 1958.

Deutsch[84] and Hill[85] cite more unstable homes in the Negro families as being detrimental to wholesome personality development. Fathers are frequently absent and a matriarchal family with a negative family atmosphere prevails. Usually a preference is shown for girls and boys attempt to adjust to the situation by adopting feminine traits. Goff[86] adds the inherited caste status of the Negro child as another factor deterring the development of positive self-esteem. The child perceives himself as an object of derision and disparagement and develops a deeply ingrained negative self-image.

It seems that the impoverished home of the lower class child has little of the interaction in which the parent sets a task for the child, observes its performance and offers some type of reward for performance. Dreger[87] and Keller[88] found tendencies of self-depreciation and depressed self-concept in the lower class child as a result of not experiencing successful accomplishments. They interpolated these tendencies as leading toward a feeling of inadequacy toward school and insufficient aspiration to overcome obstacles. Research by Goff[89] actually showed that lower class children have more feelings of inadequacy in school than do children from the middle class. It appears that the young child primarily needs from his family orientation a consistent and strong reinforcement of the notion that his successes are genuinely praiseworthy, that he is a worthwhile individual, that school learning is important and any obstacles he encounters are worth serious consideration. Since motivation and achievement are closely related to the child's perception of self, then teachers can meet many of the child's needs in school programs such as Head Start and compensate for the interaction deficit in the child's family orientation.

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[84] Deutsch, Martin, and others, _Some Considerations as to the Contributions of Social, Personality and Racial Factors to School Retardation in Minority Group Children_, paper read at American Psychology Association, Chicago, September, 1956.

[85] Hill, M. C., "Research on the Negro Family," _Marriage and Family Living_ 19:25-31, 1957.

[86] Goff, R. M., _Problems and Emotional Difficulties of Negro Children_, p. 25.

[87] Dreger, R. M., and Miller, K. S., "Comparative Psychological Studies of Negroes and Whites in the United States," _Psychological Bulletin_, vol. 57, September, 1960, pp. 361-402.

[88] Keller, Suzanne, "The Social World of the Urban Slum Child: Some Early Findings," _American Journal of Orthopsychiatry_, vol. XXXIII, October, 1963, pp. 823-831.

Summary

The emergence of the concept that intelligence is a dynamic process with broad heredity limits subject to innumerable experiential factors and not a genetically fixed inherited capacity has caused educators to examine the plight of the disadvantaged young child. Home environment influences language and cognitive development of this child by failing to provide stimulation that fosters growth in these areas. This leads the disadvantaged child into failure experiences in school which creates a feeling of inadequacy on the part of the child and suppresses his motivation for learning. To understand the disadvantaged child and to help him overcome his handicaps, one must examine the complicated network and analyze the interrelatedness of the factors that impede his ability to succeed.

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[89] Goff, R. M., "Some Educational Implications of the Influence of Rejection on Aspiration Levels of Minority Group Children," Journal of Experimental Education, vol. 23, December, 1954, pp. 179-183.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study was designed to find out whether growth in language abilities of the culturally disadvantaged young child could be improved through parent involvement and to determine the type of parent involvement that seemed to be most effective when working with parents from a culturally disadvantaged environment, whose values of education are quite different from the values of the predominantly middle class schools. The design also included an analysis of parent attitudes and what correlation, if any, exists between the parents' attitudes toward the child and the child's language abilities and what correlation exists between change in parents' attitudes toward the child and the child's improvement in language abilities as a result of participation in this experimental program. The design included the use of standardized tests to obtain intelligence test scores, language ability scores and parent attitude scores for both the pre-test and the post-test data. Details regarding the selection and description of the subjects, collection of data, treatment of data and type of parent involvement will be presented in the remainder of this chapter.

Selection and Description of Subjects

Subjects. This study utilized 41 four-year-old children enrolled in Head Start Centers in Terre Haute, Indiana, a town of approximately 80,000 located near the Illinois-Indiana state line. The children lived in three different poverty areas in the city of Terre Haute, which is in the Vigo County School Corporation, and attended Head Start Centers located in three schools within walking distance of their homes. The original population of the study was composed of 54 children with no prior school experiences when the program was initiated. Due to the mobility of the population, only 41 children remained throughout the entire year. Group I, the control group, retained only 10 of the 18 original group members. Group II, the experimental parent meeting group, retained 17 of the 18 original members and Group III, the experimental home-visit group, retained 14 of the original 18 members.

Since Head Start programs admit children on the basis of the socio-economic level of the family, the children and parents came from a low socio-economic status with the family income being $3,000 or less.

The three groups were initially matched according to mental abilities, sex ratio, number of siblings in family, educational background of parents and number of Negro and Caucasian children in each group.

Chronological age. The entrance age for children in the Terre Haute Head Start program is set at four years of age when the school year convenes. The chronological ages of the children in the study ranged from 49 months to 59 months when measured from birth to September 1, 1966.

Sex. The 41 children included 24 boys and 17 girls. There were 4 girls and 6 boys in Group I, 7 girls and 10 boys in Group II, 6 girls and 8 boys in Group III.

Race. Both Negro and Caucasian children were involved in the population of this study. Group I contained 4 Negro children and 6 Caucasian children. Group II had 4 Negro children and 13 Caucasian children and Group III was made up of 4 Negro and 10 Caucasian children.

Intelligence. During the month of October, 1966, Form A of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was administered to all of the children involved in the study. Table 1 depicts the distribution of the intelligence test scores of the three groups. The range of the intelligence test scores for Group I spread from 57 through 102 with a mean of 81. Group II showed a range extending from 56 through 111 with a mean of 84 and Group III intelligence test scores ranged from 56 through 101 with a mean of 83.

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE TEST SCORES ON PRE-TEST

Intelligence Quotient	Group I	Group II	Group III	Total
100-110	2	2	2	6
90-99	1	5	3	9
80-89	3	4	3	10
70-79	2	2	2	6
60-69	0	2	2	4
50-59	2	2	2	6
Total	10	17	14	41
Mean	81	84	83	82.6
Median	87	89	87	87

Language abilities. During the month of October, 1966, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities was administered to all of the children involved in the study. Table 2 shows the standard score means for each group in the nine areas of language abilities that are measured by the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities. The total mean standard score for the three groups were -1.25, -1.21 and -1.36 for Group I, II and III respectively.

TABLE 2. PRE-TEST STANDARD SCORE MEANS IN LANGUAGE ABILITIES

	Group I (control)	Group II (group meetings)	Group III (home-visit)
Auditory Vocal Automatic	- .71	- .90	- .70
Visual Decoding Test	- .07	- .07	- .08
Motor Encoding Test	- .55	- .82	- .95
Auditory Vocal Association	- .98	- .87	- .80
Visual Motor Sequencing	-1.50	-1.04	- .86
Vocal Encoding	-1.07	-1.04	-1.27
Auditory Vocal Sequencing	- .41	- .59	- .42
Visual Motor Association	- .06	- .68	-1.36
Auditory Decoding	- .51	- .23	-1.09
Totals	-1.24	-1.21	-1.36

Program

Introduction. The children involved in this study attended school approximately two and one-half hours per day on a daily basis. To control the teacher variable, each group contained children enrolled in classes taught by all three of the teachers involved in this study. The program offered by each teacher was very similar in nature and allowed the children experiences in the areas of art, children's literature, children's language experiences, music, self-selected work period (which included working puzzles and manipulative equipment, dramatic play, cooperative play with equipment and outdoor play experiences), science experiences and opportunities to participate in food preparation. All children received medical and dental examinations and care throughout the year. They were served lunches at school to meet their physical and nutritional needs.

Group I (control). The children in Group I attended classes and derived benefits from the experiences offered during their attendance in school. No effort was made to give guidance to the parents unless the parents sought advice from the teacher.

Group II (group meetings). The children in this group attended Head Start classes and the researcher worked closely with the teacher and school principal in an effort to involve the parents. A letter was sent to the parents of each child inviting them to come to school for an informal get-together to view colored slides of their children taken in the classroom. Since the parents of disadvantaged children typically do not become involved in school meetings and activities or respond to invitations, intensive efforts were made to establish a feeling within the parents that their ideas were important. In addition to sending letters to invite the parents to school, the teachers gave verbal invitations when they saw the parents. Offers were made to provide transportation for those who might have difficulty reaching the meeting. The parents were invited to bring younger siblings with them. College students from a local university were employed to read stories, show films or filmstrips, play games and serve refreshments to the younger children during the parent meetings.

Another technique employed to capture the interest of the parents was placing emphasis on showing colored slides of their children as they pursued the daily activities in the Head Start Center. By focusing on the children engaged in activities, experiences of the children could be related that would help the parents understand their children better and gain insight regarding the learning that was taking place in the center. A two-way sharing of experiences was encouraged with the parents and researcher sharing ideas.

At the time of the first meeting, the parents were involved in planning for future sessions together. Their requests regarding frequency of meetings, time and place, and programs guided the planning throughout the remainder of the year together. The meetings began in late October and ended in early May of the following year. Each program was developed around the needs and suggestions of the parents involved and varied from group to group.

The parents in one center showed much interest in seeing slides of their children and requested some new slides for each meeting to keep up with activities in the classroom. In addition, the researcher offered to bring educational films about children if the parents were interested. A positive response followed and the parents selected films they wanted to view (see Appendix A). After viewing each film, a conversation among the parents evolved from their interests. Discussion was stimulated by relating ideas expressed in the film to experiences of the families.

The researcher had made an intensive effort to gather information about each family in an effort to establish rapport and use this information to motivate discussion.

Group III (individualized home-visits). The children in this group also attended Head Start classes and the researcher developed an individualized home-visit plan to work with these parents. The researcher made a weekly visit to the home of each child in this group at a time designated by the parents. Since most of these homes are lacking in materials that would lead to language development and the parents tend to spend little time reading or talking with their children, materials were taken to the home each week and left with the family until the following week. Each child selected approximately five picture books per week from the collection made available by the researcher (see Appendix B). The other materials were provided on a rotating basis and included such items as tape recorders, record players and records, desk previewers for filmstrips, flannel boards with stories and characters and slide projectors with colored slides of the children taken in school activities (see Appendix C).

The materials utilized in the home-visit involvement program were considered by the researcher to be materials that would: arouse interest in books and stories, create situations that would promote conversation, create a common interest within the family unit, incorporate the child's motor abilities in the development of language abilities, and provide the child with materials he could use independently when no adult was available to assist him.

In addition to providing materials for the family to use, the researcher planned family field trips to places the family wanted to visit or to attend events in Terre Haute. These trips included the following places: a local art gallery, a telescope atop the science building at one of the local universities, a new shopping center, the Children's Symphony and the Shrine Circus. The nature of the field trips was decided by the family members and the researcher made the arrangements and provided transportation. The objective of this aspect of the home-visit involvement program was to broaden the world of the disadvantaged family and to provide common interests and understandings for family members in order that they would have topics for conversation.

Since the researcher visited the home during the half-day the child was at home, it was possible to give the child the opportunity to select books of interest to him. It also afforded the researcher the opportunity to encourage new interests by introducing the child to books that were unfamiliar to him and to provide books related to the activities in the Head Start Center.

When a tape recorder was taken to the home, a story from the book collection had been taped on the recorder with sound effects whenever feasible. This effort developed interest in the books and the child could play the taped story and look at the pictures when no adult had the time to read to him. In addition, the family was encouraged to use the tape recorder for recording conversation, telling stories, singing songs and engaging in activities of their choice. The intended value for the child would be derived through family members engaging in conversation or language related experiences with the child.

The record player and records provided an opportunity for the child to listen to some of the favorite children's stories narrated. In addition, records of nursery rhymes, favorite songs and music for listening or movement were provided. Many of these records were similar to records used at school--this gave the child an opportunity to share school activities with other family members which again brought conversation into the child's "at home" experiences.

The desk previewers for filmstrips offered another opportunity for the child to see familiar stories and have them read to him while he looked at the pictures. In addition, the child was introduced to new concepts through filmstrips related to pets and community helpers. The child relied on an adult to read the scripts until he became familiar with the information and then he could tell the story as he viewed the frames. This material was another vehicle for the child to develop his communicative skills.

The flannel board stories and characters provided another dimension for story experiences. The flannel board characters permitted the child to be involved in the action of the story as it was read or told to him. When the child became familiar with the story, he could tell it as he placed the characters on the board. Miscellaneous objects were also provided with the flannel boards with suggestions for games to play that would develop the child's vocabulary and understanding of words. The objects included geometric shapes of various size and color which could be used to match colors and develop understanding of words related to size and shape.

Another experience that was directed toward encouraging the child and parent to spend time in conversation was provided through taking colored slides of the child in the Head Start Center and providing hand viewers for the child and his family to see these in their home. It was intended to bring the parent in closer contact with the child's world in the school and again provide conversation material that would foster the child's language development.

Collection of Data

In order to answer the questions posed by the research, the following data were obtained:

1. A pre-test and post-test measure of intelligence for all children in the sample.

2. A pre-test and post-test measure of language abilities.

3. A pre-test and post-test measure of parent attitudes.

The procedures for collection of data and description of instruments will be presented in detail in the following paragraphs.

Measure of intelligence. During the month of October, 1966, Form A of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was administered to all of the children involved in the study and in May, 1967, Form B of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was administered as the post-test. This test was selected because it provided a total intelligence score based on vocabulary as demonstrated by interpretation of pictures, it could be administered individually in a relatively short period of time and had a reliability of .77 at the four-year-old level and .73 at the five-year-old level.[1]

Measure of language abilities. During the month of October, 1966, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities pre-test was administered to all of the children in the sample and during the month of May, 1967, at the conclusion of the experiemental program, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities was again administered. The Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities was selected as a measure of language abilities since it assessed nine psycholinguistic abilities. Three major dimensions are postulated to specify a given psycholinguistic ability; they are levels of organization, psycholinguistic processes and channels of communication.

In the levels of organization, two levels are identified as being important for language acquisition and use. They are the representational and automatic-sequential levels, with the former meaning the ability to organize and mediate activities requiring the meaning of linguistic symbols and the latter which mediates activities requiring the retention of linguistic symbol sequences. Both levels are essential in normal acquisition and use of language.

The dimension of psycholinguistic processes encompasses the acquisition and use of the habits required for normal language usage. The three main sets of habits are decoding, encoding and association. Decoding describes the habits required for obtaining meaning from either visual or auditory linguistic stimuli. Encoding defines the habits required to express oneself in words or gestures and association describes the habits required to manipulate linguistic symbols internally.

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[1] Dunn, L. M., Manual Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, p. 29.

The third dimension, channels of communication, describes the sensory-motor path over which linguistic symbols are received and responded to.

The nine psycholinguistic abilities are defined below.[2]

I. Test at the Representational Level

These tests assess some aspect of the subject's ability to deal with meaningful symbols.

A. Decoding tests

Test 1. Auditory decoding is the ability to understand the spoken word and is assessed by a controlled vocabulary in which the subject is asked to answer yes or no by voice or gesture to a series of graded questions.

Test 2. Visual decoding is the ability to understand pictures. This ability is assessed by an identification technique. The subject selects from among a set of pictures the one which is most nearly identical to a previously exposed stimulus picture.

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[2] McCarthy, J. J., and Kirk, S. A., Examiners Manuel, p. 4.

B. Association tests

Association tests measure the ability to relate visual or auditory symbols in a meaningful way.

Test 3. Auditory-vocal association is the ability to relate spoken words in a meaningful way and is tested with the familiar analogies test in which the subject completes a statement by supplying an analogous word.

Test 4. Visual-motor association is the ability to relate meaningful word symbols. The subject selects from a set of pictures the one which most meaningfully relates to a given stimulus picture.

C. Encoding tests

Encoding is the ability to put ideas into words or gestures.

Test 5. Vocal encoding is the ability to use spoken words to express one's ideas by describing objects such as chalk, ball and marble.

Test 6. Motor encoding is the ability to express one's ideas and understandings through gestures.

II. Automatic-Sequential Level

These tests focus on long term and short term retention of unrelated symbols.

A. Automatic tests

Test 7. Auditory-vocal automatic ability is the ability to predict future events through past experiences. The test is designed in a way that the subject must supply the last word to a statement after viewing a picture of two incidents.

B. Sequencing tests

Sequencing tests measure the subject's ability to reproduce a sequence of symbols.

Test 8. Auditory-vocal sequencing is the ability to repeat a sequence of symbols correctly.

Test 9. Visual-motor sequencing is the ability to reproduce a sequence of symbols by rearranging pictures in a sequence that the subject has previously viewed.

Measure of parent attitudes. During the month of October, 1966, the first parent attitude survey was administered and during the month of May, 1967, the parent attitude survey was repeated. For this study, the Parent Attitude Survey developed by Carl Hereford, University of Texas, and utilized in his research which is described in Changing Parental

Attitudes Through Group Discussion[3] was selected. The scale developed by Hereford was constructed to measure parent attitudes in five areas, which are: confidence in the parental role, causation of the child's behavior, acceptance of the child's behavior and feelings, mutual understanding and mutual trust.

There are 75 items in this instrument with fifteen items related to each of the five areas of concern (see Appendix D). Each item consisted of a statement for which the parent marked one of five choices: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree or strongly disagree. The extremes of this five-point scale were scored +2 or -2, depending on whether the item was stated positively or negatively. Likewise the agree and disagree choices were scored +1 or -1; the undecided response received a zero score.

The Confidence scale[4] refers to the parent's concept of himself in the parental role. The attitudes range from the low end, at which the parent feels inadequate and unsure of his ability to be a good parent, to the opposite end at which he feels adequate to meet the demands of parenthood.

The Causation scale[5] is concerned with the interpretation a parent makes of his child's behavior. At the lower end of the continuum is the parent who believes that behavior is inherited or due to supernatural factors and at the upper end is the parent who feels that his child's behavior is determined by parent-child interaction, by environmental influences and by parental behavior and attitudes.

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[3] Hereford, C. F., Changing Parental Attitudes through Group Discussion, p. 42.

[4] Ibid., p. 39.

[5] Ibid., p. 39.

The Acceptance scale[6] is comprised of items that measure the degree to which a parent is satisfied with his child, finds that the child's behavior coincides with his own concepts and sees the child as an individual in his own right. At the extremes of this continuum are the permissive parents and the rejecting parents.

The Understanding scale[7] includes items dealing with communication. At one extreme is the parent who does not share ideas, attitudes or feelings with his child; at the other end is the parent who prizes the reciprocal exchange.

The Trust scale[8] measures the amount of confidence parents have in their children. At the lower end of the continuum is a parent-child relation marked by suspicion and deceit and at the other end is a relation characterized by mutual confidence and trust.

The Hereford scale was chosen because it was of a brief nature, it was phrased in simple language and each item showed a high correlation co-efficient to the total scale score. The reliability co-efficient of the five attitude scales are well within the satisfactory range of reliability for measuring instruments of this type.

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[6] Ibid., p. 39.

[7] Ibid., p. 39.

[8] Ibid., p. 39.

Treatment of Data

Analysis of variance and the corresponding test of significance based upon the F distribution was employed to analyze the data collected and to determine the acceptance or rejection of the aforementioned hypotheses. To determine the specific differences the t test was used and the Fisher correction was employed to offset any possible compromise of randomness.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The evidence from the collected data as described in the preceding chapter has been organized under four headings: the influence of parent involvement on the child's language abilities; the influence of parent involvement on the child's intellectual abilities; the influence of parent involvement on the way the parents perceive their relationship with their child; and the fourth section will provide additional information in two areas: the performance of the child in the nine sub-areas of language abilities and discussion of parent attitudes in the five areas mentioned in the survey instrument.

Language Abilities

An analysis of variance and the F-test were applied to the data secured from the post-test of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities. Included in this procedure was a test of significance at the .05 level to determine significant differences among the groups. These data were used to test the first three hypotheses.

The hypotheses tested were:

1. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in the language abilities of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in an individualized home-visit program and those children whose

parents do not participate in any type of parent involvement.

2. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in the language abilities of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in an individualized home-visit program and those children whose parents participate in a general group meeting parent involvement program.

3. There is no significant difference in the amount of gain in the language abilities of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in a general group meeting involvement program and those children whose parents do not participate in any type of involvement program.

Analysis of variance applied to the post-test scores produced an F-ratio of 3.91 among the means of the groups. From an F-table, using 2 and 38 degrees of freedom, the resulting ratio was significant (.05 is 3.25). On the basis of these data it was found that there was a significant difference among the means of the groups (see Table 3).

TABLE 3. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AND F VALUES FOR TEST OF LANGUAGE ABILITIES

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean squares	F	P
Between groups	9.90	2	4.95	3.91	.05*
Within groups	51.93	38	1.37		
Total	61.83				

*Significant beyond .05 level.

To determine which of the three aforementioned hypotheses should be accepted or rejected a t-test was applied to test each hypothesis.

Applying the t-test to the first hypothesis a value of 2.63 was obtained and with 22 degrees of freedom this was found to be significant at the .02 level (.02 is 2.508). Using the Fisher[1] suggested adjustment due to possible bias instead of 1 in 20 (.05 level), 1 in 20n where n equals 3 was used. The difference was still significant and the first hypothesis was rejected.

When the t-test was applied to the second hypothesis a value of 1.62 was obtained and with 29 degrees of freedom this was not found to be significant. Therefore, the second hypothesis was accepted.

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[1] Edwards, A. L., Statistical Methods for the Behavioral Sciences, pp. 329-330.

When the t-test was applied to the third hypothesis a value of .403 was obtained and with 25 degrees of freedom this was not found to be significant. The third hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4 presents the results of the data analysis for the t-test of language abilities.

TABLE 4. TABLE FOR DETERMINING t-SCORES FOR TEST OF LANGUAGE ABILITIES

Groups	Mean differences	Standard error of difference between means	Degrees of freedom	t-score	P
I and III	1.280	.487	22	2.630	.02*
II and III	.720	.436	29	1.620	.20
I and II	.560	1.390	25	.403	.70

*Significant beyond .02 level.

Intellectual Abilities

Analysis of variance and the F-test were applied to the data secured from the post-test of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. This procedure included a test of significance at the .05 level to determine significant differences among the groups. These data were used to test the fourth, fifth and sixth hypotheses.

These hypotheses were:

4. There is no significant difference in improvement in intelligence test scores of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participated in an individualized home-visit parent involvement program and those children whose parents do not participate in any type of parent involvement.

5. There is no significant difference in improvement in intelligence test scores of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in an individualized home-visit involvement program and those children whose parents participate in a general group meeting involvement program.

6. There is no significant difference in improvement in intelligence test scores of culturally disadvantaged preschool children whose parents participate in a general group meeting parent involvement program and those children whose parents do not participate in any type of program.

Table 5 presents the results of the data analysis of the test of intellectual abilities.

Analysis of variance applied to the post-test scores produced an F-ratio of 2.78 among the means of the groups. From an F-table, using 2 and 38 degrees of freedom, the resulting ratio was not significant (.05 is 3.25). On the basis of these data it was found that there was no significant difference among the means of the groups. Therefore, hypotheses 4, 5 and 6 were accepted.

TABLE 5. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AND F VALUES FOR INTELLIGENCE TEST SCORES

Sources of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-ratio	P
Between groups	1481	2	740	2.78	.05
Within groups	10104	38	.266		
Total	11585				

Parent Attitudes

To analyze the data collected from the Parent Attitude Survey (Hereford adaptation), analysis of variance and the F-test were applied. This procedure included a test of significance at the .05 level to determine significant differences among the groups. These data were used to test hypotheses 7, 8 and 9.

The hypotheses were:

7. There is no significant change in parent attitudes between parents who participate in the individualized home-

visit involvement and those who participate in the general group meeting involvement program.

8. There is no significant change in parent attitudes between parents who participate in the individualized parent involvement program and those who participate in no parent program.

9. There is no significant change in parent attitudes between parents who participate in the general group meeting involvement program and those who participate in no parent involvement program.

Table 6 presents the results of the data analysis of parent attitudes.

TABLE 6. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE AND F VALUES FOR SURVEY OF PARENT ATTITUDES

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F-ratio	P
Between groups	2606	2	1303	3.40	.05*
Within groups	14587	38	383.8		
Total	17193				

*Significant beyond .05 level.

Analysis of variance applied to the post-test scores produced an F-ratio of 3.40 among the means of the groups. From an F-table, using 2 and 38 degrees of freedom, the resulting ratio was significant (.05 is 3.25). On the basis of these data it was found that there was a significant difference among the means of the groups.

Table 7 presents the results of the data analysis of the t-test.

TABLE 7. TABLE FOR DETERMINING t-SCORES FOR SURVEY OF PARENT ATTITUDES

Groups	Mean differences	Standard error of difference between means	Degrees of freedom	t-score	P
II and III	2.30	7.84	29	3.06	.70
I and III	19.20	5.39	22	3.56	.01*
I and II	17.90	8.57	25	2.09	.05**

*Significant beyond .01 level.
**Significant beyond .05 level.

To determine which of the three aforementioned hypotheses should be accepted or rejected a t-test was applied to each hypothesis.

When the t-test was applied to the seventh hypothesis a value of .306 was obtained and with 29 degrees of freedom this was not found to be significant. Therefore, the seventh hypothesis was accepted.

In applying the t-test to the eighth hypothesis a value of 3.56 was obtained. Using 22 degrees of freedom, this was found to be significant at the .01 level (.01 is 2.819). Using the Fisher suggested adjustment due to possible bias instead of 1 in 20 (.05 level), 1 in 20n where n equals 3 was used. The difference was still significant and the eighth hypothesis was rejected.

When the t-test was applied to the ninth hypothesis, a value of 2.09 was obtained and with 25 degrees of freedom this was found to be significant at the .05 level (.05 is 2.06). Using the Fisher suggested adjustment due to possible bias, instead of 1 in 20 (.05 level), 1 in 20 n where n equals 3 was used; the difference was not significant and the ninth hypothesis was accepted.

Supplementary Data Analysis

Language abilities. Figure 1 shows in graphic form the language abilities of the children as measured by the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities at the time the experimental program began. It can be seen readily that all of the groups were more than one standard deviation below the national mean for children the same age. The encoding and automatic-sequencing tests, which call for expressing oneself, were consistently low in both motor and vocal processes. The decoding tests, which require obtaining meaning only, tend to be lower in the area utilizing auditory processes than in the area utilizing visual processes. As can be seen, the groups were equated in the total scores at the beginning of the program.

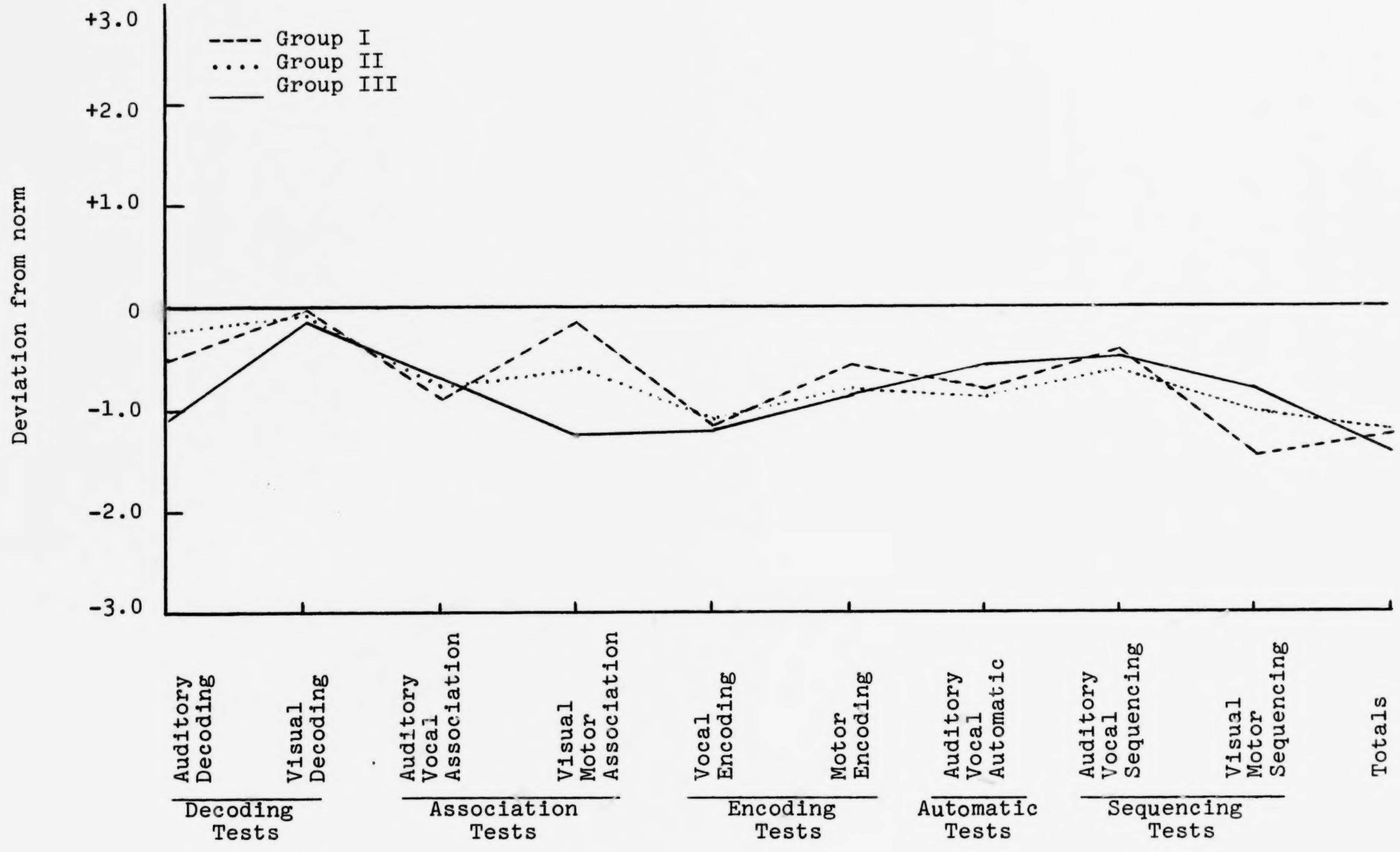

Figure 1. Mean Pre-test Scores for ITPA Sub-tests

Figure 2 summarizes graphically the data collected at the end of the experimental program. Group III (home-visit group) scored higher than the control group on all nine sub-tests. On two of the sub-tests, Visual Decoding and Auditory-Vocal Association, the differences were significant at the .05 level. Group III scored higher than Group II (group meeting) on eight of the nine sub-tests; however, none of these differences was significant. Group II scored higher than Group I on five of the nine sub-tests and the difference on Visual-Motor Association was significant at the .05 level.

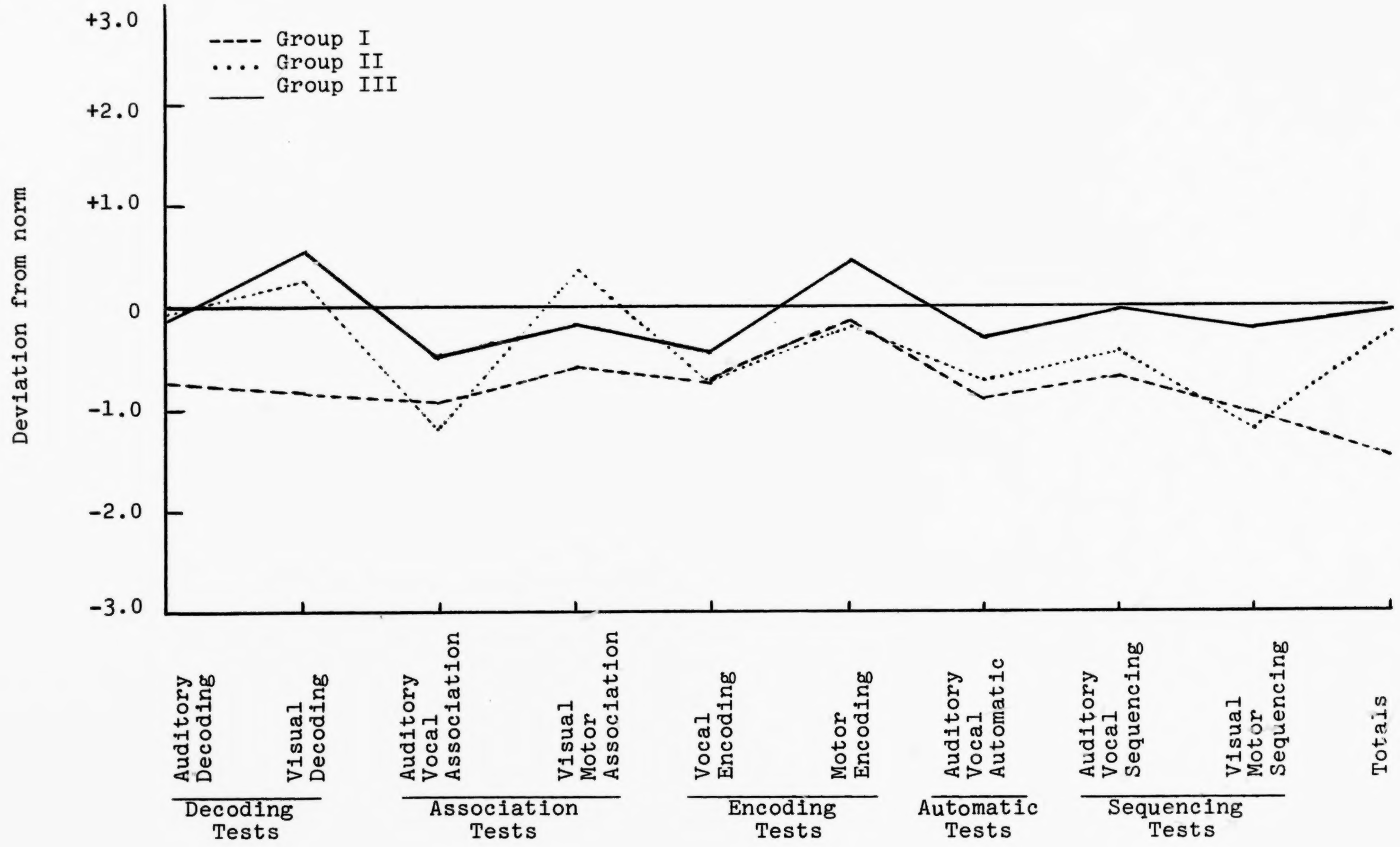

Figure 2. Mean Post-test Scores for ITPA Sub-tests

Figure 3 presents the mean gain for the three groups in each of the nine sub-tests and the total. A dramatic gain of over one standard deviation is noted with Group III in total language abilities. Group II shows slightly more than one-half standard deviation gain and Group I shows a slight loss, which indicates the language growth was not sufficient to compensate for the age difference at the time of the post-testing.

Group III shows a gain in all of the sub-tests with Visual-Motor Association and Motor Encoding both being greater than one standard deviation. Group II also showed a gain in all of the sub-tests while Group I showed a gain in only four of the sub-tests.

In summary, it is important to call attention to the mean scores of the sub-tests. Group III shows a consistent gain in all sub-tests approaching or exceeding the national mean. Group II, though fluctuating greatly in sub-test scores, closely approximates the national mean in total score. Group I, though gaining in some sub-test scores, shows an overall deficit.

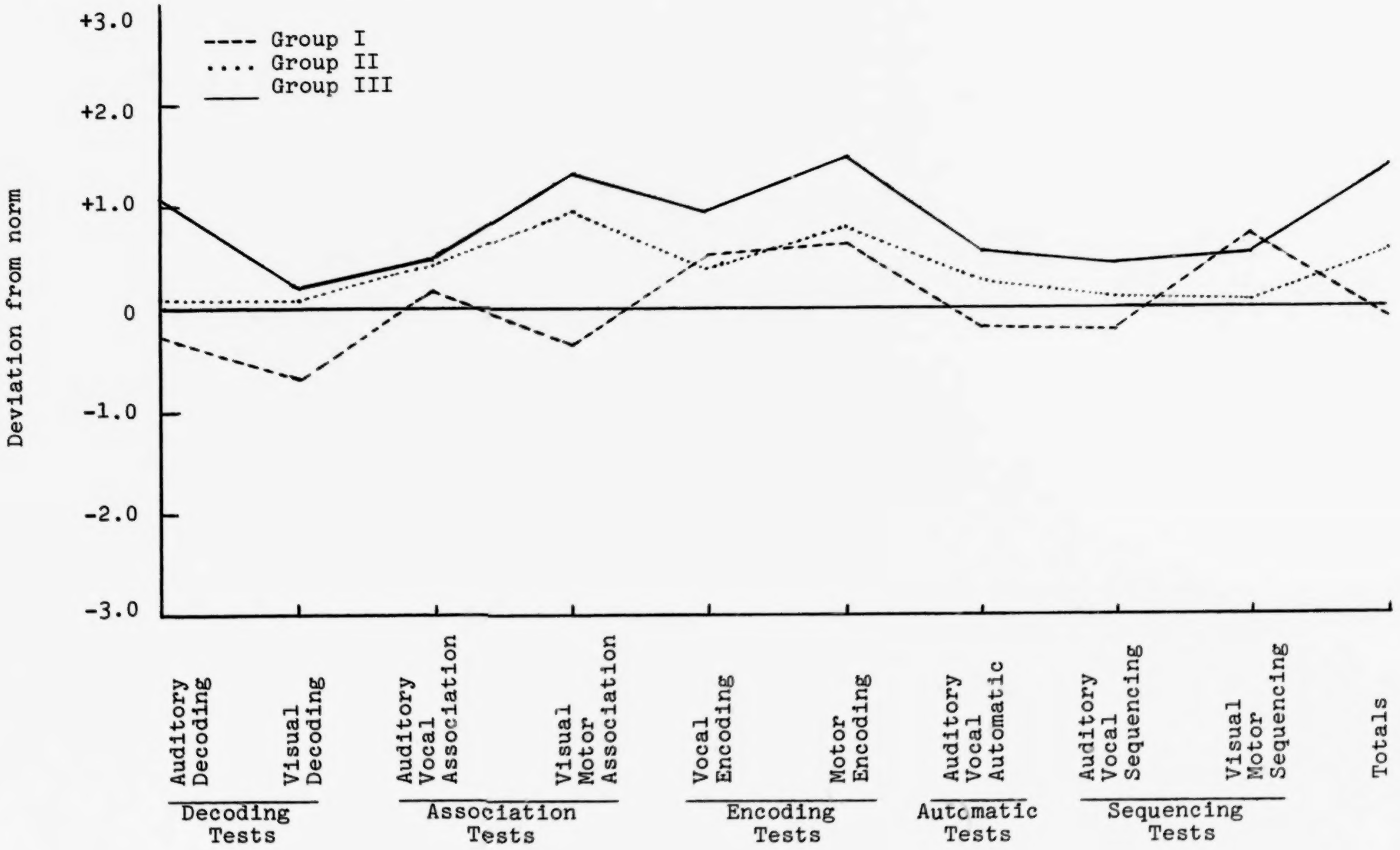

Figure 3. Mean Gain Scores for ITPA Sub-tests

Parent attitudes. The means for each sub-test of the Parent Attitude Survey were determined and are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8. MEAN SCORES FOR PARENT ATTITUDE SURVEY

	Pre-test			Post-test			Gain		
	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group I	Group II	Group III
Confidence	.10	.12	.14	-.2	3.59	16.43	-.3	3.47	6.29
Causation	5.80	5.90	5.50	5.9	10.35	9.43	.1	4.41	3.93
Acceptance	2.00	2.13	2.07	2.5	6.21	5.86	.5	4.08	3.79
Understanding	6.60	7.65	7.07	7.3	11.59	9.36	.7	3.94	2.29
Trust	.20	.12	.14	.9	3.53	5.71	.7	3.47	5.57
Total	15.70	15.47	15.36	16.9	34.82	36.14	1.2	19.37	20.79

From the pre-test information it can be noted that the three groups of parents showed similar attitudes at the beginning of the experimental program.

Group II and Group III showed greater gains than Group I in all of the sub-tests. This indicates that the disadvantaged parents in these two groups have a more adequate feeling about their ability to be parents; have a better understanding of their child's behavior; have a better appreciation of the child as an individual; have gained insight concerning the value of two-way communication and have a greater feeling of trust in their children.

Group III showed the greatest gain in the area of confidence. In addition to a greater gain on the Parent Attitude Survey, the researcher noted related observations. In the initial home visits, ten of the fourteen mothers had to consult with their husbands before they could approve any weekly visit in the home. Most of these mothers were unclean in their personal appearance and lived in extremely dirty and cluttered dwellings. They were characterized by poor posture and little or no eye contact when conversing with the researcher. In addition, they spoke in tones that were hardly audible. By the third visit, without exception, the mothers began to improve in their personal appearance by wearing clean clothing and combing their hair. They began to show improved posture and heartily welcomed the researcher into their homes. Another noticeable change was in their ability to make decisions without hesitation. Within the first month the dwellings showed a new appearance with the floors swept and much of the clutter removed.

As the mothers showed more confidence in their role, they began to reflect more interest in the materials that were brought to the home. A keen interest was shown in using the tape recorders and often the families sang songs together, read or told stories and kept some of these experiences on the tape to play for the researcher on her next visit to the home. Two of the mothers asked the researcher to bring some books for the mother to read. They also showed interest in the children's books as they became more involved and frequently they pointed out the books the children enjoyed most. The record players seemed to gain much attention from the entire family. Several of the mothers mentioned that they had borrowed records from friends to play on the record player while their child was at school and not using the record player.

The change from passiveness and skepticism to keen interest and concern for others was most evident. The interest in books and learning materials is worthy of mention even though empirical support is all that is available.

Summary

In summary, the findings presented in this chapter are as follows:

1. The children whose parents participated in an individualized home-visit parent involvement program showed significant gains in language abilities.

2. The children whose parents participated in general group meetings showed gains in language abilities but these gains were not significant at the .05 level.

3. The children whose parents were not involved in a parent program showed little gain in language abilities.

4. The children in all three groups did not show a significant gain in intelligence test scores as a result of the involvement or lack of involvement of the parents.

5. The parents in the home-visit program showed a significant positive change in attitudes.

6. The parents in the general group meetings showed a significant positive change in attitudes.

7. The parents who were not involved in a program showed little change in attitudes.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The enactment of federally funded programs for educating the culturally disadvantaged has prompted much inquiry and experimentation. Educational systems have extended their responsibilities and developed broader programs to serve the community. One aspect of the Head Start programs includes working with parents. This component has suffered many dilemmas for numerous reasons such as: lack of teachers experienced in working with parents; failure of the school personnel to understand parents from the disadvantaged environment and failure of school personnel to understand the advantages of a good home-school relationship. In an effort to comply with the guidelines for operating a Head Start program, many of the projects offered an occasional parent meeting and found that parents do not attend regularly. Often this lead to a conclusion that the parents were disinterested.

This study was undertaken in an effort to find another approach for working with parents from culturally disadvantaged environments and to reflect the benefits the children gained as a result of this approach. Sociologists have pointed out the wariness toward the schools that parents from disadvantaged environments hold since most of their past contacts with the school have been at a time when their children had problems. Therefore, they respond with reluctance when invited to come to school for a meeting. In addition, sociologists have pointed out the concern of the disadvantaged for fulfilling immediate needs rather than long range needs; hence, education is not important to them and making an effort to get to school for a meeting has little appeal. Also, it is noted that the disadvantaged home is a rather sterile environment that would not stimulate a desire to learn nor afford opportunities for family members to pursue an activity together. With these three basic premises, the home-visit program was designed to meet the parents in their own environment and build a warm relationship between the home and school by going to the home. This plan also alleviated transportation problems the parents might encounter when coming to school for a meeting. The materials taken to the home created a center of interest and provided the tools necessary for engaging in activities as a family unit.

To merely suggest what seems to be a solution to the unique needs of the disadvantaged is not sufficient justification for a program. This study investigated the gains each group of children made in an effort to answer the following questions:

1. Will the language abilities of children show additional improvement when language related experiences are extended beyond the classroom?

2. Will parents of culturally disadvantaged children utilize materials that will foster development of language abilities if they are available to them?

3. Will parents of disadvantaged children show a change in attitude as a result of association with school personnel who reflect concern, understanding and interest in their children but make no direct attempt to interpret the needs and behavior of children to the parents?

4. Will disadvantaged parents participate in group meetings and gain insight about their child that will be reflected in their child's progress in school?

This study was limited to forty-one culturally disadvantaged four-year-old children enrolled in three Head Start Centers in a midwestern town of about 80,000.

The design of the study included administering the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test to the forty-one children to obtain a measure of intelligence at the time the experimental program was initiated and again at the time the program was concluded. To measure language abilities, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities was administered in the same manner. The parents of each child in the sample completed the Parent Attitude Survey prior to the initiation of the program and again at the end of the treatment.

Analysis of variance and F-test were used to analyze the data statistically. For specificity the t-test and Fisher correction were employed. Nine hypotheses, three dealing with intellectual abilities, three dealing with language abilities and three dealing with parent attitudes, were tested and the results reported in tabular form. In addition supplementary data and descriptive information were reported in the preceding chapter.

To recapitulate, from the treatment of the data the following findings were evident:

1. The children whose parents participated in the home-visit parent involvement program showed significant gains in language abilities. The intellectual abilities, however, did not show a significant gain when analyzed statistically. The parents of these children also showed a significant positive change in parent attitudes.

2. The children whose parents participated in the group meetings showed a gain in language abilities and intellectual abilities; however, the gains were not statistically significant. As a result of these meetings, the parents showed more interest in their child and his school experiences. The survey revealed a positive change in attitudes but the results were not significant.

3. The children whose parents did not participate in any type of parent involvement showed no significant gains in language abilities or intellectual abilities. The parents reflected no change in attitudes which were marked with negativism in both the pre-test and post-test analyses.

Conclusions

An analysis of the data for this study suggest the following conclusions:

1. Contrary to general opinion, disadvantaged parents are concerned about their children and willing to cooperate with school personnel when a plan is devised that is within their realm of capabilities.

2. The home experiences of the child influence his language abilities.

3. The disadvantaged young child has more capacity to perform when his visual processes can be utilized as opposed to his auditory processes.

4. The disadvantaged young child is very inadequate in his ability to comprehend the spoken word and to express his ideas in spoken words.

5. The culturally disadvantaged parents tend to feel inadequate in their role as parents.

6. The culturally disadvantaged parents tend to show little trust in their child.

Implications

1. The results of parent involvement and the change within the parents seem to bring about a change within the child. Working with culturally disadvantaged parents on an individual basis seems to be the most profitable type of

program and educational leaders need to consider this method as an alternative for reaching parents.

2. The traditional Parent-Teacher meetings or Mother's Club meetings need to be re-organized in order to meet the unique needs of the disadvantaged parents and become a contributing part of the educational program.

3. The language deficits of the disadvantaged child will not be overcome in a brief enrichment program. A continuous effort will be necessary to foster improvement.

4. Several implications for teacher education are evident. Prospective teachers need a thorough understanding of the sociology of the disadvantaged. They especially need skill in communicating with disadvantaged parents. Also, teacher education programs should emphasize the unique needs of the disadvantaged child, how this child learns and how to evaluate his progress.

Suggestions for Future Research

Suggestions for future research are:

1. A longitudinal research program that would continue through the primary grades which would show the influence of a continuous enrichment program on the disadvantaged child's progress.

2. A research program that would involve the parents as aides in the classroom as another means of helping

culturally disadvantaged parents gain insight about their children.

3. A follow-up study of the children in this study to see whether Group III (home-visit) maintained the advantage they held at the end of the experimental program.

4. A follow-up evaluation of the parents in Groups II and III to assess their interest in their children, their cooperation with the school and their participation in school functions.

5. A study in the area of teacher attitudes to define behavioral characteristics of teachers who seem to work effectively with culturally disadvantaged children and parents.

6. A comparative research study with a classroom teacher conducting a parent involvement program for the parents of the children in her class as contrasted to a teacher having a parent education specialist or educational sociologist developing the parent involvement program with the parents of the children in her class.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

Appendix A

Films Used in Group Meetings

Answering the Child's Why, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill., n.d., 16 mm., black and white, sound, 14 minutes.

Contrasts the various parental attitudes toward children's questions and shows the effects on a child's personality of interest and concern about his questions, or a negative, rejecting attitude on the part of parents. Demonstrates typical reactions to children's questions about death, birth, illness, and the policeman on the corner.

At Home with Your Child: Playmates, National Educational Television, Indiana University A-V Center, Bloomington, Indiana, n.d., 16 mm., black and white, sound, 29 minutes.

Presents some of the aspects of the behavior and needs of the three to five-year-old child. Discusses physical growth, play, likes and dislikes in foods, the acting out of roles, and the free flow of the imagination. Shows children aged three to five at play. Includes comments about communicable diseases, their prevention, and control.

Child at Play, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1953, 16 mm., black and white, sound, 20 minutes.

A concealed camera shows three-year-old Judy as she plays alone, with a group of strange children, and with a four-year-old friend. Reveals some of the social experiences of children and concludes with questions about the significance of the children's behavior.

Child Explores His World, Harmon and Brooklyn Children's Museum, New York, n.d., 16 mm., black and white, sound, 32 minutes.

Shows how the Brooklyn Children's Museum helps city children to learn about the world of nature and people of strange lands and other days. Pictures of children planning with their friends their own club program, making collections and equipment, and learning where to go on field trips. Points out the continued value in adulthood of the museum habit.

Children's Emotions, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1950, 16 mm., black and white, sound, 21 minutes.

Discusses, through short dramatic illustrations, the development and guidance of children's emotions at various age levels up to ten years. The commentator explains that the very young child's emotions, while intense, are changeable and harmless because they are completely expressed. Shows how parents can deal with fear, anger, and curiosity, thus making happiness the most frequent and dominant emotion to influence the child's personality development. Designed to be used with a child development text.

Children's Fantasies, Crawley Films, McGraw-Hill, New York, n.d., 16 mm., black and white, sound, 27 minutes.

Uses a discussion among four parents and actual situations involving child behavior to describe the fantasies and the imaginative beliefs of children. Considers such matters as fear of dark, belief in Santa Claus, storytelling, romantic imagination, companions, and conflict with parents. Suggest possible ways in which parents can correct the situation and keep fantasy and reality in balance.

Children Learning by Experience, United World Films, New York, 1949, 16 mm., black and white, sound, 30 minutes.

Shows young children in everyday situations which illustrate the urge to learn, practicing simple skills, understanding the world around, learning at second hand, and learning through plan and imagination.

Children's Play, Crawley Films, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1956, 16 mm., black and white, sound, 27 minutes.

Shows that play is an important activity for children and that it has common patterns at different ages of five and twelve years and explains the part that each parent can play in helping to encourage and guide play at each age level.

Preschool Incidents, No. 1: When Should Grown-Ups Help? Department of Child Study, Vassar College, Poughkeepsi, New York, n.d., 16 mm., black and white, sound, 14 minutes.

Shows preschool children in some situations in which they require help from adults and in others in which they manage successfully themselves. Points out that while adult help is often necessary, just as often it is important for adults not to intrude their standards of speed or efficiency. Four examples are shown, and audience discussion is invited.

When Should Grown-Ups Stop Fights? Department of Child Study, Vassar College-New York University, New York, n.d., 16 mm., black and white, sound, 15 minutes.

Points out the need for a teacher to be a skilled observer and to know her pupils well in order to decide whether or not to intervene in fights, quarrels, and conflicts among nursery school children. Shows four different episodes among two- to five-year-olds as case studies for which resolutions are not presented. Invites the audience to discuss the situations.

Appendix B

Books Used in Home-Visits

Alexander, Anne, *ABC of Cars and Trucks*, Doubleday, Garden City, 1956, unp.

Boats and Ships From A to Z, Rand-McNally, New York, 1964, 64 pp.

Beim, Jerrold, *Two Is a Team*, Harcourt, Brace, New York, 1945, 58 pp.

The Smallest Boy in the Class, Morrow, New York, 1949, 48 pp.

Bonsall, Crosby, *Tell Me Some More*, Harper, New York, 1961, 64 pp.

Branley, Franklin, *Big Tracks, Little Tracks*, Thomas Crowell, New York, 1960, unp.

Brown, Jeanette Perkins, *Ronnie's Wish*, Friendship, New York, 1954, 32 pp.

Brown, Margaret Wise, *Two Little Trains*, William R. Scott, New York, 1949, unp.

Buckley, Helen, *Grandfather and I*, Lothrop, New York, 1959, unp.

Budd, Lillian, *The Pie Wagon*, Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, New York, 1966, 36 pp.

Budney, Blossom, *A Kiss Is Round*, Lothrop, New York, 1954, 26 pp.

Burton, Virginia Lee, *Choo Choo*, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1937, 48 pp.

The Little House, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1942, 40 pp.

de Regniers, Beatrice Schenk, *A Little House of Your Own*, Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., New York, 1954, unp.

Was It A Good Trade? Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., New York, 1956, unp.

The Shadow Book, Harcourt Brace and World, Inc., 1960, unp.

Dickinson, Alice, *The First Book of Plants*, Franklin B. Watts, New York, 1953, 71 pp.

Duvoisin, Roger, *Petunia and the Song*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1958, unp.

Ets, Marie, *Just Me*, Viking Press, New York, 1965, 32 pp.

Fatio, Louise, *The Happy Lion's Quest*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1961, 26 pp.

Fisher, Aileen, *Where Does Everyone Go*? Thomas Y. Crowell, Co., New York, 1961, unp.

Flack, Marjorie, *Ask Mr. Bear*, Macmillan, New York, 1932, unp.

Angus and the Ducks, Doubleday, New York, 1939, 32 pp.

Tim Tadpole and the Great Bullfrog, Doubleday, New York, 1959, 32 pp.

Flanders, Michael, *Creatures Great and Small*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1965, unp.

Foster, Doris Van Liew, *A Pocketfull of Seasons*, Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, New York, 1960, 37 pp.

Gag, Wanda, *Millions of Cats*, Coward, McCann, New York, 1928, 32 pp.

Gans, Roma, *The Wonder of Stones*, Crowell, New York, 1963 unp.

Gay, Zhenya, *Look*! Viking Press, New York, 1952, unp.

What's Your Name, Viking Press, New York, 1955, unp.

Goudy, Alice, *The Day We Saw The Sun Come Up*, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1961, unp.

Gramatky, Hardie, *Little Toot*, Putnam, New York, 1939, 96 pp.

Greene, Carla, *I Want to be a Train Engineer*, Childrens Press, Chicago, 1956, unp.

I Want to be a Zoo-Keeper, Childrens Press, Chicago, 1957, unp.

I Want to be a Policeman, Childrens Press, Chicago, 1958, unp.

I Want to be a Truck Driver, Childrens Press, Chicago, 1958, unp.

I Want to be a Space Pilot, Childrens Press, Chicago, 1961, unp.

Grifalconi, Ann, *City Rhythms*, Bobbs-Merrill, Indianapolis, 1965, 31 pp.

Heilbroner, Joan, *This Is the House Where Jack Lives*, Harper and Row, New York, 1962, 62 pp.

Joslin, Sesyle, *What Do You Say, Dear*? W. R. Scott, New York 1958, 48 pp.

Kay, Helen, *One Mitten Lewis*, Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, New York, 1955, unp.

Keats, Ezra Jack, *The Snowy Day*, Viking Press, New York, 1962, 31 pp.

Whistle for Willie, Viking Press, New York, 1964, 33 pp.

Kepes, Juliet, *Lady Bird, Quickly*, Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1964, 47 pp.

Kessler, Ethel, and Kessler, Leonard, *Do Baby Bears Sit in Chairs*? Doubleday and Co., New York, 1961, unp.

Krauss, Ruth, *Bears*, Harper and Row, New York, 1948, 32 pp.

The Carrot Seed, Harper and Row, New York, 1948, 24 pp.

Mama, I Wish I Was Snow, Atheneum, New York, 1962, unp.

Kuskin, Karla, *James and the Rain*, Harper and Row, New York, 1957, 48 pp.

La Fontaine, Jeanae, *The Rich Man and the Shoemaker*, F. Watts, New York, 1965, unp.

Lenski, Lois, *Cowboy Small*, Oxford Press, New York, 1949, 45 pp.

Lionni, Leo, *Inch by Inch*, Ibsn Obolensky, Inc., New York, 1960, unp.

McCloskey, Robert, *Make Way For Ducklings*, Viking Press, New York, 1941, 62 pp.

Miles, Betty, *A House for Everyone*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., New York, 1958, unp.

Payne, Joan Balfour, *New Boy in School*, Hastins House, New York, 1966, 56 pp.

Petersham, Maud, and Petersham, Miska, *The Circus Baby*, Macmillan, New York, 1959, 28 pp.

Randall, Blossom, *Fun For Chris*, Albert Whitman & Co., Chicago, 1956, 26 pp.

Rey, H. A., *Anybody at Home*? Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1942,

Russell, Solveig Paulson, *What Good Is A Tail*? Bobbs-Merrill, Indianapolis, 1966, 32 pp.

Sauer, Julia Lina, *Mike's House*, Viking, New York, 1954, 31 pp.

Schlein, Miriam, *Shapes*, W. R. Scott, New York, 1952, unp.

Showers Paul, *The Listening Walk*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1961, unp.

Look at Your Eyes, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1962, unp.

Stover, Jo Ann, *Why? Because*, David McKay & Co., Inc., New York, 1961, unp.

Thayer, Jane, *The Second Story Giraffe*, McClurg & Co., Elk Grove, Illinois, 1964, 32 pp.

Tresselt, Alvin R., *White Snow, Bright Snow*, Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, New York, 1947, 33 pp.

Johnny Maple Leaf, Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, New York, 1948, unp.

Raindrop Splash, Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, New York, 1952, 36 pp.

Tudor, Tasha, *1 is One*, Wallack Publishing Co., New York, 1956, unp.

Udry, Janice May, *Let's Be Enemies*, Harper, New York, 1961, unp.

Wildsmith, Brian, *ABC*, Franklin Watts, New York, 1963, unp.

Will, Nicholas, The Little Tiny Rooster, Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., New York, 1960, 32 pp.

Yashima, Mitsu, Umbrella, Viking Press, Inc., New York, 1958, unp.

Momo's Kitten, Viking Press, Inc., New York, 1961, 33 pp.

Zion, Gene, Harry, The Dirty Dog, Harper, New York, 1956, 28 pp.

Zolotow, Charlotte, Do You Know What I'll Do? Harper & Row, New York, 1945, unp.

Big Brother, Harper & Row, New York, 1960, unp.

Appendix C

Equipment and Materials Used in Home-Visits

Filmstrips

The Bus Driver (Community Helpers Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 40 frames.

Chicken Little (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

Cinderella (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Dentist (Community Helpers Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 40 frames.

The Doctor (Community Helpers Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 40 frames.

The Fireman (Community Helpers Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 40 frames.

The Four Musicians (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Gingerbread Boy (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Grocer (Community Helpers Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 40 frames.

Hansel and Gretel (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

Jack and the Beanstalk (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Kitten (Our Pets Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 37 frames.

Little Black Sambo (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Little Red Hen (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Test-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

Little Red Riding Hood (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Mailman (Community Helpers Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 40 frames.

The Parakeet (Our Pets Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 37 frames.

The Pony (Our Pets Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 37 frames.

The Puppy (Our Pets Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 37 frames.

The Three Bears (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Three Little Pigs (Story Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 45 frames.

The Turtle (Our Pets Series), McGraw-Hill Text-Films, Inc., New York, color, silent, 37 frames.

Records

Golden Records, Records Affiliated, New York, distributed by producer, 45 r.p.m., seven records, 56 1/2 minutes.

00169, Bozo Finds A Friend, 8 minutes.
00162, Chicken Little, 8 1/2 minutes.
00163, Jack and the Beanstalk, 8 1/2 minutes.
00159, Little Red Caboose, 8 minutes.
00166, Little Red Hen, 7 1/2 minutes.
00173, Peter Rabbit, 8 minutes.
00155, The Three Bears, 8 minutes.

Peter Pan Records, Synthetic Plastics Co., Newark, distributed by producer, 78 r.p.m., nine records, 30 1/2 minutes.

572, Big Brass Band, 3 minutes, 15 seconds.
571, Folk Songs USA, 3 minutes, 45 seconds.
497, Little Black Sambo, 3 minutes.
496, Little Toot, 4 minutes.
529, Little White Duck, 2 minutes.
477, Mary Had a Little Lamb, 3 1/2 minutes.
570, Me and My Shadow, 3 1/2 minutes.

514, Old MacDonald Had a Farm, 3 1/2 minutes.
490, Sleeping Beauty, 4 minutes.

Flannel Board Stories

Scott, Louise Binder, Stories That Stick, F. A. Owen Publishing Company, Dansville, New York, 1959, 48 pp.

Gustavus Ghost Has Fun, p. 11.
The Little Old Farm, p. 25.
Puff's Easter Bonnet, p. 21.
Red Says Stop, p. 9.
Snowman Pete, p. 17.
Three Little Pigs, p. 31.
Zonta, an Indian Boy, p. 13.

Materials and Equipment Provided for Home Use

Tape recorders

Record players

Books (itemized in Appendix B)

Desk previewers for filmstrips

Hand viewers for slides

Flannel Boards

Flannel board figures

Flannel board stories (itemized above)

Filmstrips (itemized in Appendix C)

Records (itemized in Appendix C)

Appendix D

Patent Attitude Survey

Instructions. Indicate on the separate answer sheet how you feel about each statement. There is no right or wrong answer. . . . . A - Strongly agree

B - Agree

C - Undecided

D - Disagree

E - Strongly disagree

1. Parents have to sacrifice everything for their children.

2. Parents should help children feel they belong and are needed.

3. Taking care of a small baby is something that no woman should be expected to do all by herself.

4. When you come right down to it, a child is either good or bad and there's not much you can do about it.

5. The earlier a child is weaned from its emotional ties to its parents the better it will handle its own problems.

6. Most of the time giving advice to children is a waste of time because they either don't take it or don't need it.

7. It is hard to let children go and visit people because they might nisbehave when parents aren't around.

8. Fewer people are doing a good job of child-rearing now than 30 years ago.

9. With all a child hears at school and from friends, there's little a parent can do to influence him.

10. If a little girl is a tomboy, her mother should try to get her interested in dolls and playing house.

11. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it, just as parents express theirs.

12. If children are quiet for a while you should immediately find out why.

13. It's a rare parent who can be even-tempered with the children all day.

14. Psychologists now know that what a child is born with determines the kind of person he becomes.

15. One reason that it is sad to see children grow up is because they need you more when they are babies.

16. The trouble with trying to understand children's problems is they usually must make up a lot of stories to keep you interested.

17. A mother has a right to know everything goig on in her child's life because her child is a part of her.

18. Most parents aren't sure what is the best way to bring up children.

19. A child may learn to be a juvenile delinquent from playing games like cops and robbers and war too much.

20. There is no reason why a child should not learn to keep his clothes clean very early in life.

21. If a parent sees that a child is right and the parent is wrong, they should admit it and try to do something about it.

22. A child should be allowed to try out what it can do at any time without the parents watching.

23. It's hard to know what to do when a child is afraid of something that won't hurt him.

24. Most all children are just the same at birth; it's what happens to them afterwards that is important.

25. Playing with a baby too much would be advisable since it excites them and they won't sleep.

26. Children shouldn't be asked to do all the compromising without a chance to express their side of things.

27. Parents should make it their business to know everything their children are thinking.

28. Raising children isn't as hard as most parents let on.

29. There are many things that influence a young child that parents don't understand and can't do anything about.

30. A child who wants too much affection may become a "softie" if it is given to him.

31. Family life would be happier if parents made children feel they were free to say what they think about anything.

32. Children must be told exactly what to do and how to do it or they will make mistakes.

33. Parents sacrifice most of their fun for their children.

34. Many times parents are punished for their own sins through the bad behavior of their children.

35. If you put too many restrictions on a child, you will stunt his personality.

36. Most children's fears are so unreasonable it only makes things worse to let the child talk about them.

37. It is hard to know when to let boys and girls play together when they can't be seen.

38. I feel I am faced with more problems than most parents.

39. Most of the bad traits children have (like nervousness or bad temper) are inherited.

40. A child who misbehaves should be made to feel guilty and ashamed of himself.

41. Family conferences which include the children don't usually accomplish much.

42. It's a parent's duty to make sure he knows a child's innermost thoughts.

43. It's hard to know whether to be playful rather than dignified with children.

44. A child that comes from bad stock doesn't have much chance to amounting to anything.

45. A child should be weaned away from the bottle or breast as soon as possible.

46. There's a lot of truth in the saying. "Children should be seen and not heard."

47. If rules are not closely enforced children will misbehave and get into trouble.

48. Children don't realize that it mainly takes suffering to be a good parent.

49. Some children are so naturally headstrong that a parent can't really do much about them.

50. One thing I cannot stand is a child's constantly wanting to be held.

51. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions.

52. More parents should make it their job to know everything their child is doing.

53. Few parents have to face the problems I find with their children.

54. Why children behave the way they do is too much for anyone to figure out.

55. When a boy is cowardly, he should be forced to try things he is afraid of.

56. If you let children talk about their troubles they end up complaining even more.

57. An alert parent should try to learn all his child's thoughts.

58. It's hard to know when to make a rule and stick by it.

59. Not even psychologists understand exactly why children act the way they do.

60. Children should be toilet-trained at the earliest possible time.

61. A child should always accept the decision of his parents.

62. Children have a right to activities which do not include their parents.

63. A parent has to suffer much and say little.

64. If a child is born bad there's not much you can do about it.

65. There's no acceptable excuse for a child hitting another child

66. Children should have a share in making family decisions just as the grown-ups do.

67. Children who are not watched will get in trouble.

68. It's hard to know what healthy sex ideas are.

69. A child is destined to be a certain kind of person no matter what the parents do.

70. It's a parent's right to refuse to put up with a child's annoyances.

71. Talking with a child about his fears most often makes the fear look more important than it is.

72. Children have no right to keep anything from their parents.

73. Raising children is a nerve wracking job.

74. Some children are just naturally bad.

75. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens.

76. Children don't try to understand their parents.

77. A child should never keep a secret from his parents.